

Impact of *ERCC2* gene polymorphism on HIV-1 disease progression to AIDS among North Indian HIV patients

Ranbir Chander Sobti · Nega Berhane ·
Salih Abdul Mahdi · Rupinder Kler · Seyed Ali Hosseini ·
Vijish Kuttia · Ajay Wanchu

Received: 26 August 2009 / Accepted: 15 January 2010
© Springer Science+Business Media B.V. 2010

Abstract HIV/AIDS remains to be one of the killing diseases of mankind. Host genetic response is one of the factor which determine susceptibility to HIV and disease progression to AIDS. The aim of the present study was to evaluate the impact of *ERCC2* *Lyc*⁷⁵¹*Gln* (excision repair cross complementing rodent repair deficiency, complementation group 2) polymorphism on HIV-1 susceptibility and disease progression to AIDS, as this gene has been reported to intervene in degrading retroviral cDNA before it integrates with the host DNA. This case control study included 300 HIV seropositive cases and an equal number of HIV seronegative controls. DNA was isolated from the blood samples of study subjects and genotyping of *ERCC2* was conducted by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) method. The *Gln/Gln* genotype showed a significant variation between cases and controls ($P = 0.047$, OR 1.71, 95% CI 1.00–2.93), indicating a possible role of susceptibility in reference to controls and disease progression when compared within cases.

Keywords *ERCC2* polymorphism · Disease progression · HIV 1

Introduction

There was a total death of 2.1 million people by AIDS in the year 2007 alone. Two and a half million people were newly infected with HIV/AIDS in the same year. A total of 32.2 million people were living with HIV/AIDS worldwide in 2007. Nevertheless, it is estimated that the overall number of people living with HIV will increase in the coming years as a result of the ongoing number of new infections each year and the beneficial effects of more widely available antiretroviral therapy. In Asia, an estimated 5 million (4.1–6.2 million) people were living with HIV in 2007. The number of new infections and people who died from AIDS-related illnesses were comparatively equal in 2007 which is 380,000 (200,000–650,000) and 380,000 (270,000–490,000) respectively. National HIV infection levels are highest in South-East Asia. New HIV infections are also increasing steadily, although at a much slower pace, in populous countries such as Bangladesh and China. New more accurate estimates indicate that approximately 2.5 million (2–3.1 million) people in India were living with HIV in 2006, and that adult national HIV prevalence was 0.36%. Although the proportion of people living with HIV is lower than previously estimated, India's epidemic continues to be substantial in terms of absolute numbers [1].

The role of host genetic factor in HIV susceptibility and disease progression has been explained by a well-characterized 32-bp deletion in the host cell chemokine receptor *CCR5* [2]. When HIV binds to host cells, it uses the CD4 receptor on the surface of host immune cells together with a co receptor, mainly the *CCR5* and *CXCR4* chemokine

R. C. Sobti (✉) · N. Berhane · S. A. Mahdi · R. Kler ·
S. A. Hosseini
Department of Biotechnology, Panjab University, Chandigarh,
Chandigarh 16 00 14, India
e-mail: rcsobti@pu.ac.in

N. Berhane
e-mail: tesnega@yahoo.com

V. Kuttia · A. Wanchu
Department of Internal Medicine, Postgraduate Institute
of Medical Education and Research, Chandigarh, India

receptors [3, 4]. Homozygous mutations for this 32-bp deletion offer almost complete protection from HIV infection through the formation of a truncated receptor preventing viral entry [5–8], and heterozygous mutations are associated with lower pre-AIDS viral loads and delayed progression to AIDS [9–16].

ERCC2 (excision repair cross complementing rodent repair deficiency, complementation group 2), also known as Xeroderma Pigmentosum group D (*XPD*), encodes *ERCC2* protein which has a helicase activity and plays a key role in nucleotide excision repair (NER) pathway [17]. Moreover, this gene appears to play a principal role in the degradation of retroviral cDNA. This *XPD*-dependent reduction of retroviral cDNA results in decreased successful integration events of the proviral DNA [18]. Reverse transcription of retroviral RNA genomes produce a double stranded linear cDNA molecule. A host degradation system prevents a majority of the cDNA molecules from completing the obligatory genomic integration necessary for pathogenesis. Yoder et al. [18] demonstrated that the human TFIIH complex proteins *XPB* (*ERCC3*) and *XPD* (*ERCC2*) play a principal role in the degradation of retroviral cDNA. They further explained that DNA repair-deficient *XPB* and *XPD* mutant cell lines exhibit an increase in transduction efficiency by both HIV and Moloney murine leukemia virus-based retroviral vectors. Nucleotide excision repair (NER) is a DNA damage removal pathway that is conserved from *E. coli* to humans and is triggered in response to specific types of DNA damage [19].

Till date six exonic single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) have been reported in *ERCC2*, and of them, A → C polymorphism at codon 751 on exon 23 has been studied most widely and reported to modulate cancer of different types. This *ERCC2* (db SNP no. rs13181) A → C change results in amino acid substitution from lysine to glutamine. Thus, codon 751 variant leads to total rearrangement of the electronic configuration of the amino acid [20, 21]. It has been well established that the genetic disorder in the nucleotide excision repair pathway results in a number of diseases including cancer of different organs and HPV [22].

Different cohort studies of HIV-1 infected subjects have clearly indicated that the rates of progression of HIV disease may vary greatly among individuals. Although most individuals infected with HIV develop AIDS within a median period of 10 years, approximately 10% of HIV infected subjects progress to AIDS within the first 2–3 years of seroconversion (rapid progressors), and approximately 5–10% remain asymptomatic and have stable CD4/T lymphocyte counts 10 years after seroconversion (nonprogressor) [23]. A growing body of evidence

suggests that host genetic factors play an important role both in susceptibility to HIV infection and progression to AIDS [24].

Among host factors that affect HIV disease progression are age, gender, route of transmission, life stress and genetic polymorphism of some genes such as *CCR5*, *CXCR4*, *HLA*, *CYP*, *SDF* do play major role in affecting disease progression from individual to individual [25–27].

The main aim of this study was to evaluate impact of *XPD* *Lys*⁷⁵¹*Gln* polymorphism on individual susceptibility to HIV-1 and its progression to AIDS in relation to other factors that affect rate of disease progression. Specifically, individual genetic differences in HIV disease progression and *ERCC2* gene were investigated in HIV seropositive cases and role of this gene in respect to susceptibility was compared with seronegative control participants.

Materials and methods

Study population

Written informed consent was obtained from all the cases and controls. The study was carried out after obtaining approval from the ethical committee of Postgraduate Institute of Medical Education and Research, Chandigarh, India. For this case-control study, peripheral blood samples (2–3 ml) were collected from 600 north Indian subjects during December 2007 to October 2008. These included HIV infected individuals ($n = 300$) from the immune deficient clinic of the Post Graduate Institute of Medical Education and Research (PGIMER), Chandigarh. The control blood samples ($n = 300$) were also collected from the same geographical area after they were confirmed to be seronegative for HIV by ELISA I and II tests and free from any other chronic illness. Inclusion criteria for cases were being seropositive for HIV-1 infection before starting HAART (Highly Active Anti Retroviral therapy) and age range 18–60. Those seropositive patient who did not give written consent, age range less than 18 or greater than 60 and who did start HIV treatment were excluded from this study. Similarly the inclusion criteria for controls were age range 18–60 and being seronegative for HIV-1 test and individuals without any chronic symptom of disease. The exclusion criteria for controls was age range less than 18 or greater than 60, being seropositive for HIV-1 test, any symptom of chronic illness and failure to give written consent. All controls were healthy with no symptoms of disease. Detailed clinical data regarding age, sex, year of infection, occupation, CD4 count, stage of disease and route of transmission was obtained from the patients' record.

ERCC2 genotyping

Genomic DNA was extracted from peripheral blood by proteinase K digestion and phenol–chloroform extraction. Genomic DNA was used to genotype *XPB* *Lys*⁷⁵¹*Gln* by means of polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) analysis. PCR was performed in 25 µl reaction mixture, containing 50 ng of genomic DNA 2 mM MgCl₂, 0.04 mM deoxynucleotide triphosphates, 1.0 U of Taq polymerase, and the Manufacturer's buffer [20 mM Tris–HCl (pH 8.4) and 50 mM KCl]. PCR condition was accomplished by initial denaturation at 94°C for 4 min was followed by 30 cycles of 30 s at 94°C, 30 s at 60°C and 1 min at 72°C, and then a final extension step of 7 min at 72°C. The 734 bp *XPB* PCR products were amplified with the primers 5'-CCTCTCCTTTCCTCTGTTC-3' (forward) and 5'-GGTGAGGGG GACATCT-3' (reverse). Twenty microliter of PCR product (734 bp) (Fig. 1) was digested with 10 U of Pst I restriction enzyme and 1× buffer supplied with the enzyme (New England Bio labs, USA) at 37°C overnight. The variant allele revealed 646 bp fragment following digestion and 3% agarose gel electrophoresis, while the wild allele was not able to be digested by Pst I [28] (Fig. 2).

Statistical analysis

Chi-square analysis was utilized to test the frequencies of the genotype and alleles. Age, sex, occupation, transmission route, CD4 count, disease stage and opportunistic disease infection were tabulated for cases. The association between polymorphism of *XPB* gene with the risk of HIV was estimated by computing odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (95% CI), using a multivariate logistic regression analysis that included several variables such as age, opportunistic infection, stage of HIV, route of transmission and CD4 count. The statistical analysis was performed using Epi-Info software (Epi-Info, version 3.5.1).

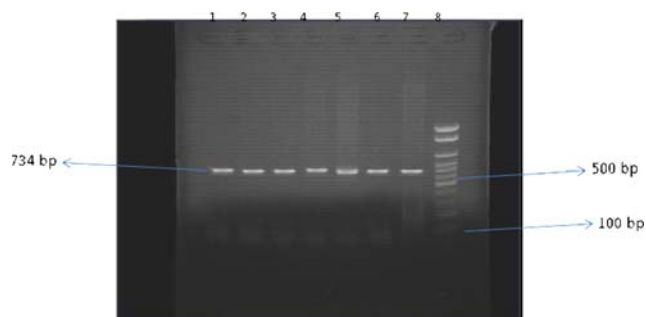


Fig. 1 PCR amplified product of *XPB* gene of HIV seropositive subjects. Lane 8 100 bp DNA marker, lane 1–7 734 bp *XPB* PCR product

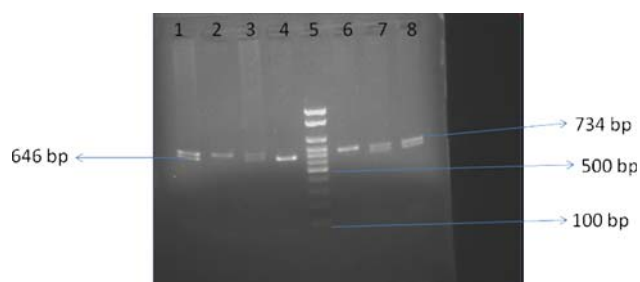


Fig. 2 PCR-RFLP representative agarose gel of *XPB* (Pst I) digest genotype analysis of HIV seropositive subjects. Lane 5 100 bp DNA marker, lane 1, 3, 7, 8 *Lys*/*Gln* 646 and 734 bp, lane 2 and 6 *Lys*/*Lys* 734 bp, lane 4 *Gln*/*Gln* 646 bp

Center for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, GA, USA) and software SPSS version 11.5 (SPSS, Chicago, IL). Significance was set at $P < 0.05$.

Results

This study analyzed the role of *XPB* *Lys*⁷⁵¹*Gln* polymorphism in risk of HIV-1 susceptibility and progression to AIDS in north Indian Population. The study included 300 cases and an equal number of controls. Although effort was made to frequency-match cases and controls by age, cases were younger in average than controls. However, there was no significant difference in the mean age between cases (mean \pm SD, 35 \pm 8) and controls (36 \pm 10) ($P > 0.05$). There were more males in the study. Among cases, the number of men was 193 (64.3%), and that of women it was 107 (35.7%). Similarly the number of men in controls was 195 (65%) and that of women it was 105 (35%).

Of the 300 HIV patients, 9% were at stage I of HIV, 18% were at stage II, and the remaining 24.3 and 48.7% were at stages III and IV respectively. Percentage of disease stage on basis of sex is given in Table 1.

Among all the study subjects (cases), truck drivers accounted for about 21.7% followed by farmers 18.3%, labourers 8.7% and others working in different private and public sectors accounted 21.7%. Almost all women were house wives and they accounted for 29.6% of the

Table 1 Study subjects (cases) and the stages of HIV AIDS

Stage	Male		Female		Total	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
I	18	9.3	9	8.4	27	9
II	32	16.6	22	20.6	54	18
III	48	24.9	25	23.3	73	24.3
IV	95	49.2	51	47.7	146	48.7
Total	193	100	107	100	300	100

occupation share. Of all the women cases, only eight belonged to the fourth category. Table 2 shows the category of cases on the basis of occupation.

The transmission route of HIV among cases was mostly of heterosexuality that accounted for 92.3% of the transmission, which was followed by unknown and blood transfusion accounting for 4.4 and 1.7% respectively. Acquiring HIV during sharing of contaminated needle and men who had sex with men (MSM) accounted for 1.3 and 0.3% respectively. Cases that belonged to the unknown category were those involved in more than one possible routes of transmission and did not exactly know the source of their infection.

The percentage of the *ERCC2* *Lyc*⁷⁵¹*Gln* genotype distribution for both cases and controls is given in Table 3. Chi-square (χ^2) analysis was utilized to test the Hardy Weinberg's equilibrium, the study subjects were in accordance with this equilibrium $P > 0.05$. The percentage of the *Lyc/Lyc* genotype in controls was greater (38.7%) as compared to cases (29.7%). The *Lyc/Gln* genotype percentage was more in cases (53.6%) than in controls (48.7%). The percentage of the *Gln/Gln* genotype was 16.7% in cases as compared to 12.7% in controls. A significant variation existed among cases and controls with respect to the variant *Gln/Gln* genotype ($P = 0.047$, OR 1.71, 95% CI 1.00–2.93). The combined *Lyc/Gln* + *Gln/Gln* genotypes too showed a significant variation in cases ($P = 0.025$, OR 1.49, 95% CI 1.05–2.13). The stage of HIV and frequency of genotype at each stage is given in Table 4. The staging was done by physicians as per the WHO clinical staging of HIV disease in adults and adolescents (Version 2006). Among the total 300 study subjects, 219 were found to be at stages III and IV. The mean CD 4 count was found to be 498, 384, 259 and 116 for stages I, II, III and IV respectively. Statistically significant association was observed between the heterozygous *Lyc/Gln* and variant homozygous *Gln/Gln* genotypes and stage IV of HIV (OR 1.72, 95% CI 1.06–2.81, $P = 0.028$ and OR 2.71,

Table 3 Genotype and allele frequency of *ERCC2* among study subjects

Genotype	Cases		Controls		P value	OR (95% CI)
	n	%	n	%		
<i>Lyc/Lyc</i>	89	29.7	116	38.7		1 (Ref.)
<i>Lyc/Gln</i>	161	53.6	146	48.7	0.055	1.44 (0.99–2.08)
<i>Gln/Gln</i>	50	16.7	38	12.7	0.047 ^a	1.71 (1.00–2.93)
<i>Lyc/Gln</i> + <i>Gln/Gln</i>	211	70.3	184	61.4	0.025 ^b	1.49 (1.05–2.13)
Allele = <i>Lyc</i>	339	56.5	378	63		
<i>Gln</i>	261	43.5	222	37	0.025 ^c	1.31 (1.03–1.66)

OR was calculated by EPI-Info, version 3.5.1. (Center for Disease Control and Prevention)

CI confident interval, OR odds ratio, Ref reference

^{a, b, c} $P < 0.05$

Table 4 Distribution of *ERCC2* genotype in respect to each stage of HIV

Stages of HIV	Genotypes of <i>XPB</i>	n/c	OR (95% CI)	P
I	<i>Lyc/Lyc</i>	9/116	1.0 Ref.	1.0 Ref.
	<i>Lyc/Gln</i>	12/146	1.06 (0.40–2.84)	0.91
	<i>Gln/Gln</i>	6/38	1.89 (0.71–5.02)	0.22
II	<i>Lyc/Lyc</i>	22/116	1.0 Ref.	1.0
	<i>Lyc/Gln</i>	29/146	1.05 (0.55–2.0)	0.45
	<i>Gln/Gln</i>	3/38	0.46 (0.41–1.46)	0.25
III	<i>Lyc/Lyc</i>	22/116	1.0 Ref.	1.0
	<i>Lyc/Gln</i>	42/146	1.52 (0.83–2.79)	0.19
	<i>Gln/Gln</i>	9/38	1.25 (0.48–3.16)	0.77
IV	<i>Lyc/Lyc</i>	36/116	1.0 Ref.	1.0
	<i>Lyc/Gln</i>	78/146	1.72 (1.06–2.81)	0.028 ^a
	<i>Gln/Gln</i>	32/38	2.71 (1.43–5.18)	0.0016 ^b

OR was calculated by EPI-Info version 3.5.1. (Center for Disease Control and Prevention)

n/c genotype at particular stage to number of control for the same genotype, OR odds ratio, 95% CI confidence interval

P value < 0.05 significant

^{a, b} $P < 0.05$

Table 2 Study subjects (cases) and their occupation

Occupation	Male		Female		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Labourer	20	10.4	6	5.6	26	8.7
Farmer	51	26.4	4	3.7	55	18.3
Truck driver	65	33.7	–	–	65	21.7
House wife	–	–	89	83.2	89	29.6
Others	57	29.5	8	7.5	65	21.7
Total	193	100	107	100	300	100

95% CI 1.43–5.18, $P = 0.0016$) respectively indicating a probable risk of accelerated disease progression. The frequencies of the three genotype of *ERCC2* were correlated with time of disease progression. Table 5 shows the distribution of the three genotypes in respect to time of disease progression for each stage. 4.48 folds of increased risk towards accelerated disease progression was observed between *Gln/Gln* genotype in 3–5 years of seroconvertors at stage IV of HIV (OR 4.48, 95% CI 1.99–10.18, $P = 0.0000979$).

Table 5 Genotype distribution and time of disease progression among seropositive subjects

Year of seroconversion	Genotype	S I n/c	OR (95% CI)	S II n/c	OR (95% CI)	S III n/c	OR (95% CI)	S IV n/c	OR (95% CI)
1–2 years	<i>Lyc/Lyc</i>	2/116	1.0 Ref.	4/116	1.0 Ref.	11/116	1.0 Ref.	12/116	1.0 Ref.
	<i>Lyc/Gln</i>	4/146	1.57 (0.29–8.44)	13/146	2.45 (0.82–7.33)	19/146	1.37 (0.59–3.22)	33/146	2.18 (1.03–4.70)
	<i>Gln/Gln</i>	1/38	1.51 (0.14–16.23)	1/38	0.77 (0.09–6.68)	3/38	0.84 (0.25–2.88)	7/38	1.78 (0.58–5.33)
3–5 years	<i>Lyc/Lyc</i>	6/116	1.0 Ref.	16/116	1.0 Ref.	9/116	1.0 Ref.	15/116	1.0 Ref.
	<i>Lyc/Gln</i>	8/146	1.06 (0.38–2.96)	10/146	0.50 (0.20–1.21)	19/146	1.68 (0.69–4.18)	44/146	2.33 (1.19–4.63)
	<i>Gln/Gln</i>	4/38	1.94 (0.57–6.53)	2/38	0.41 (0.10–1.72)	5/38	1.61 (0.57–4.55)	22/38	4.48 (1.99–10.18)
6–10 year	<i>Lyc/Lyc</i>	1/116	1.0 Ref.	1/116	1.0 Ref.	2/116	1.0 Ref.	8/116	1.0 Ref.
	<i>Lyc/Gln</i>	–	–	4/146	3.12 (0.35–7.54)	4/146	1.57 (0.29–8.44)	1/146	0.11 (0.01–0.80)
	<i>Gln/Gln</i>	1/38	3.0 (0.19–46.84)	–	–	–	–	2/38	0.77 (0.17–3.50)
>10 year	<i>Lyc/Lyc</i>	–	–	1/116	1.0 Ref.	–	1.0 Ref.	1/116	1.0 Ref.
	<i>Lyc/Gln</i>	–	–	2/146	1.58 (0.15–17.22)	–	–	–	–
	<i>Gln/Gln</i>	–	–	–	–	1/38	–	1/38	3.00 (0.19–46.84)

OR was calculated by Epi-Info. Version 3.5.1 (Center for Disease Control and Prevention)

S stages, n/c genotype at particular stage to number of control for the same genotype, OR odds ratio, 95% CI confidence interval

Only significant *P* value is given

Discussion

Apart from the NER pathway for repairing adducted DNA, the *ERCC2* gene is involved in degradation of viral cDNA, polymorphism in this gene might have reduced effect on viral cDNA degradation, whereby viral replication would be successful and reduces CD4 count to promote HIV disease progression to AIDS. This is the first study that has attempted to find out the association of *ERCC2* *Lyc*⁷⁵¹*Gln* polymorphism with HIV/AIDS disease progression. In fact it has been reported that the presence of variant allele of this gene is associated with an increased risk of cancers such as melanoma [29], prostate [30], bladder [31], oesophagus [32] among others. However, conflicting reports have also been available with respect to different cancer types: bladder [33], breast [34, 35] and lung [36].

The *Gln/Gln* genotype frequency showed significant variation between cases and controls suggesting a possible role of disease susceptibility in cases. Moreover, this genotype was found to be associated with rapid disease progression in 3–5 years seroconverter category.

The present finding indicated that the *Gln/Gln* genotype has impact on HIV-1 susceptibility and play role in disease progression to AIDS, the *Lyc/Gln* genotype too showed association with stage and risk of accelerated disease progression. Yoder et al. [18] indicated that *XPD* and *XPB* mutant cells have high transduction of viral cDNA indicating reduced role of these two mutated genes in degrading viral cDNA. It is consistent with the present study where the variant *Gln/Gln* genotype of *ERCC2* gene was significantly associated with disease susceptibility and progression due to the reduced role of the *ERCC2* protein in viral cDNA degradation, thereby, increasing the pool of available cDNA for integration and ultimately promoting low immune response to opportunistic infection. Actually this finding needs to be confirmed with large cohort study by including other disease progression measures like viral load, and other clinical and molecular markers. Likewise, the physiological process, how the variant genotype facilitates susceptibility and disease progression in HIV infection needs to be explained by testing in vitro experiments, though it is ascertained that the *ERCC2* *Lyc*⁷⁵¹*Gln* polymorphism is predicted to affect protein function in nucleotide excision repairing pathway [21]. In addition, it has been observed that mutations in the *XPD* gene can diminish the activity of TFIIH complexes giving rise to repair defects, transcription defects, and abnormal responses to apoptosis. Because *XPD* is important in multiple cellular tasks and rare *XPD* mutations results in genetic diseases *XPD* polymorphism may operate as genetic susceptibility factor [37]. Furthermore, this gene may also participate in other regulatory cellular processes including DNA replication and basal transcription [38], cell cycle progression

[39], and P53 mediated apoptosis [40, 41]. Due to this vital role of the *XPD* gene in the basic physiology of the cell, the *Gln/Gln* genotype might be playing a significant role for HIV susceptibility and disease progression. One of the drawbacks of this study was the failure to use exposed and uninfected patients as controls, because it was too difficult to get the negative spouses of the patients (though their number was very small) due to various reasons, although some of the control individuals used in the study had reported experiencing of promiscuous sexual behavior [41].

Apart from the nucleotide excision repair role of *ERCC2*, this gene is linked with other roles like viral DNA degradation, basal transcription repair complex FIIH and p53 mediated regulator of apoptosis which could have effect on viral host interactions [42].

Retroviral DNA integration creates a discontinuity in the host cell chromatin and repair of this damage is required to complete the integration process. As integration and repair are essential for both viral replication and cell survival, it is possible that specific interactions with the host DNA repair systems might provide new cellular targets for human immunodeficiency virus therapy [43, 44]. One possible way of accomplishing this target effectively is through analyzing the role of host genetic factor in HIV disease susceptibility and progression.

Acknowledgements The authors of this paper would like to appreciate Dr. Ajay Wanchu's clinical staff for the kind help and assistance they have provided during sample collection and data recording.

References

1. Report on the global HIV/AIDS epidemic 2008: executive summary. UNAIDS/08.27E/JC1511E. Available at <http://www.unaids.com>. Accessed 2 Jan 2009
2. Lama J, Planelles V (2007) Host factors influencing susceptibility to HIV infection and AIDS progression. *Retrovirology* 4:52
3. Roos ML, Lange JM, de Goede RE, Miedema PT, Tersmette F, Coutinho RA, Schellekens PT, Miedema F, Tersmette M (1992) Viral phenotype and immune response in primary human immunodeficiency virus type 1 infection. *J Infect Dis* 165:427–437
4. Kelleher AD, Zaunders JJ (2006) Decimated or missing in action: CD4+ T cells as targets and effectors in the pathogenesis of primary HIV infection. *Sci HIV Med* 3:5–12
5. Dean M, Carrington M, Winkler C, Huttley GA, Smith MW, Allikmets R, Goedert JJ, Buchbinder SP, Vittinghoff E, Gomperts E, Donfield S, Vlahov D, Kaslow R, Saah A, Rinaldo C, Detels R (1996) Genetic restriction of HIV-1 infection and progression to AIDS by a deletion allele of the *CCR5* structural gene. *Science* 273:1856–1862
6. Liu R, Paxton WA, Choe S, Ceradini D, Martin SR, Horuk R, MacDonald ME, Stuhlmann H, Koup RA, Landau NR (1996) Homozygous defect in HIV-1 coreceptor accounts for resistance

- of some multiply-exposed individuals to HIV-1 infection. *Cell* 86:367–377
7. Huang Y, Huang Y, Paxton WA, Wolinsky SM, Neumann AU, Zhang L, He T, Kang S, Ceradini D, Jin Z, Yazdanbakhsh K, Kunstman K, Erickson D, Dragon E, Landau NR, Phair J, Ho DD, Koup RA (1996) The role of a mutant *CCR5* allele in HIV-1 transmission and disease progression. *Nat Med* 2:1240–1243
 8. Samson M, Libert F, Doranz BJ, Rucker J, Liesnard C, Farber CM, Saragosti S, Lapoumeroulie C, Cognaux J, Forceille C, Muyldermans G, Verhofstede C, Burtonboy G, Georges M, Imai T, Rana S, Yi Y, Smyth RJ, Collman RG, Doms RW, Vassart G, Parmentier M (1996) Resistance to HIV-1 infection in caucasian individuals bearing mutant alleles of the *CCR-5* chemokine receptor gene. *Nature* 382:722–725
 9. De Roda Husman AM, Koot M, Cornelissen M, Keet IP, Brouwer M, Broers SM, Bakker M, Roos MT, Prins M, de Wolf F, Coutinho RA, Miedema F, Goudsmit J, Schuitemaker H (1997) Association of *CCR5* genotype and clinical course of HIV-1 infection. *Ann Intern Med* 127:882–890
 10. Garred P, Eugen-Olsen J, Iversen AN, Benfield TL, Svejgaard A, Hofmann B (1997) Dual effect of *CCR5* delta 32 gene deletion in HIV-1-infected patients. Copenhagen AIDS Study Group. *Lancet* 349:1884
 11. Katzenstein TL, Eugen-Olsen J, Hofman B, Benfield T, Pedersen C, Iversen AK, Sørensen AM, Garred P, Koppelman U, Svejgaard A, Gerstoft J (1997) HIV-infected individuals with the *CCR* delta32/*CCR5* genotype have lower HIV RNA levels and higher CD4 cell counts in the early years of the infection than do patients with the wild type. Copenhagen AIDS Cohort Study Group. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr Hum Retrovirol* 16:10–14
 12. McNicholl JM, Smith DK, Qari SH, Hodge T (1997) Host genes and HIV: the role of the chemokine receptor gene *CCR5* and its allele (*Delta32 CCR5*). *Emerg Infect Dis* 3:261–271
 13. Meyer L, Magierowska M, Hubert JB, Rouzioux C, Deveau C, Sanson F, Debre P, Delfraissy JF, Theodorou I (1997) Early protective effect of *CCR-5* delta 32 heterozygosity on HIV-1 disease progression: relationship with viral load. The SEROCO Study Group. *AIDS* 11:F73–F78
 14. Michael N, Chan G, Louie L, Mascola J, Dondero D, Birx D, Sheppard H (1997) The role of viral phenotype and *CCR-5* gene defects in HIV-1 transmission and disease progression. *Nat Med* 3:338–340
 15. Smith MW, Dean M, Carrington M, Winkler C, Huttley GA, Lomb DA, Goedert JJ, O'Brien TR, Jacobson LP, Kaslow R, Buchbinder S, Vittinghoff E, Vlahov D, Hoots K, Hilgartner MW, O'Brien SJ (1997) Contrasting genetic influence of *CCR2* and *CCR5* variants on HIV-1 infection and disease progression. *Science* 277:959–965
 16. Sullivan AD, Wigginton J, Kirschner D (2001) The coreceptor mutation *CCR5Δ32* influences the dynamics of HIV epidemics and is selected for by HIV. *PNAS* 98:10214–10219
 17. Banerjee M, Sarkar J, Das JK, Mukherjee A, Sarkar AK, Mondal L, Giri AK (2007) Polymorphism in the ERCC2 codon 751 is associated with arsenic-induced premalignant hyperkeratosis and significant chromosome aberrations. *Carcinogenesis* 28:672–676
 18. Yoder K, Alain S, Kenneth K, Michael M, Frederic B, Richard F (2006) The DNA repair genes XPD and XPD defend cells from retroviral infection. *PNAS* 103:4622–4627
 19. Anja J, Brabant V, Stan R, Eliss NA (2000) DNA helicases, genomic stability, and human genetic disease. *Genomics Hum Genet* 1:409–459
 20. Shen MR, Jones IM, Mohrenweiser H (1998) Non-conservative amino acid substitution variants exist at polymorphic frequency in DNA repair genes in healthy humans. *Cancer Res* 58:604–608
 21. Justenhoven C, Hamann U, Pesch B, Harth V, Rabstein S, Baisch C, Vollmert C, Illig T, Ko YD, Thomas T, Brauch H (2004) ERCC2 genotypes and a corresponding haplotype are linked with breast cancer risk in a german population. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 13:2059–2064
 22. Kirk GD, Turner PC, Gong Y, Lesi OA, Mendy M, Goedert JJ, Hall AJ, Whittle H, Hainaut P, Montesano R, Wild WP (2005) Hepatocellular carcinoma and polymorphisms in carcinogen-metabolizing and DNA repair enzymes in a population with aflatoxin exposure and hepatitis B virus endemicity. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 14:373–379
 23. Haynes BF, Pantaleo G, Fauci AS (1996) Toward an understanding of the correlates of protective immunity to HIV infection. *Science* 271:324–328
 24. Chakraborty R, Morel AS, Sutton JK, Appay V, Ripley RM, Dong T, Rostron T, Ogola S, Palakudy T, Musoke R, D'Agostino A, Ritter M, Rowland-Jones SL (2005) Correlates of delayed disease progression in HIV-1-infected kenyan children. *J Immunol* 174:8191–8199
 25. Evans DL, Leserman J, Perkins DO, Stern RA, Murphy C, Zheng B, Gettes D, Longmate JA, Silva SG, van der Horst CM, Hal CD, Folds JD, Golden RN, Petitto JM (1997) Severe life stress as a predictor of early disease progression in HIV infection. *Am J Psychiatry* 154:630–634
 26. Julg B, Goebel FD (2005) Susceptibility to HIV/AIDS: an individual characteristic we can measure. *Infection* 33:160–162
 27. Langford SE, Ananworanich J, Cooper DA (2007) Predictors of disease progression in HIV infection. *AIDS Res Ther* 4:11–25
 28. Lunn RM, Helzlsouer KJ, Parshad R, Umbach DM, Harris EL, Sanford KK, Bell DA (2000) XPD polymorphisms: effects on DNA repair proficiency. *Carcinogenesis* 21:551–555
 29. Tomescu D, Kavanagh G, Ha T, Campbell H, Melton DW (2001) Nucleotide excision repair gene XPD polymorphisms and genetic predisposition to melanoma. *Carcinogenesis* 22:403–408
 30. Rybicki BA, Conti DV, Moreira A, Cicek M, Casey G, Witte JS (2004) DNA repair gene XRCC1 and XPD polymorphisms and risk of prostate cancer. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 13:23–29
 31. Stern MC, Johnson LR, Bell DA, Taylor JA (2002) XPD codon 751 polymorphism, metabolism genes, smoking, and bladder cancer risk. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 11:1004–1011
 32. Liu G, Zhou W, Yeap BY, Su L, Wain JC, Poneris JM, Nishioka NS, Lynch TJ, Christiani DC (2007) XRCC1 and XPD polymorphisms and esophageal adenocarcinoma risk. *Carcinogenesis* 28:1254–1255
 33. Choudhury A, Elliott F, Iles M, Churchman M, Bristow RG, Bishop DT, Kiltie AE (2008) Analysis of variants in DNA damage signaling genes in bladder cancer. *BMC Med Genet* 9:69
 34. Shi Q, Wang LE, Bondy ML, Brewster A, Singletary SE, Wei Q (2004) Reduced DNA repair of benzo [a] pyrene diol epoxide-induced adducts and common XPD polymorphisms in breast cancer patients. *Carcinogenesis* 25:1695–1700
 35. Tang D, Cho S, Rundel A, Chen S, Phillips D, Zhou J, Hsu Y, Schnabel F, Estabrook A, Perera FP (2002) Polymorphisms in the DNA repair enzyme XPD are associated with increased levels of PAH-DNA adducts in a case-control study of breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 75:159–166
 36. David-Beabes GL, Lunn RM, London SJ (2001) No association between the *XPD* (Lys751Gln) polymorphism or the *XRCC3* (Thr241Met) polymorphism and lung cancer risk. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 10:911–912
 37. Romanowicz-Makowska H, Sobczuk A, Smolarz B, Fiks T, Kulig A (2007) XPD Lys751Gln polymorphism analysis in women with sporadic breast cancer. *Pol J Pathol* 58:245–249
 38. Spitz MR, Wu X, Wang Y, Wang L, Shete S, Amos CI, Guo Z, Lei L (2001) Modulation of nucleotide excision repair capacity by XPD polymorphisms in lung cancer patients. *Cancer Res* 61:1354–1357

39. Robles AI, Wang XW, Harris CC (1999) Drug-induced apoptosis is delayed and reduced in XPD lymphoblastoid cell lines: possible role of TFIIH in p53-mediated apoptotic cell death. *Oncogene* 18:4681–4688
40. Hoeijmakers JH, Bootsma D (1990) Molecular genetics of eukaryotic DNA excision repair. *Cancer Cells* 2:311–332
41. Wang XW, Vermeulen W, Coursen JD, Gibson M, Lupold SE, Forrester K, Xu G, Elmore L, Yeh H, Hoeijmakers HJ (1996) The XPB and XPD DNA helicases are components of the p53-mediated apoptosis pathway. *Genes Dev* 10:1219–1232
42. Benhamou S, Sarasin A (2002) ERCC2/XPD gene polymorphisms and cancer risk. *Mutagenesis* 17:463–469
43. Taganov K, Daniel R, Katz RA, Favorova O, Skalka AR (2001) Characterization of retrovirus-host DNA junctions in cells deficient in nonhomologous-end joining. *J Virol* 75:9549–9552
44. Skalka AM, Katz RA (2005) Retroviral DNA integration and the DNA damage response. *Cell Death Differ* 12:971–978